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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a very comprehensive overview of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, presenting the views of critics as well as supporters. CLT views language as a vehicle for communication, and it recognizes as its aim the teaching of communicative competence, which includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence. In communicative classrooms, the teacher's role is that of facilitator, while students become communicators. Practical ideas and suggestions are offered for applying this approach. The paper is divided into 3 parts: approach, design, and procedure. Part 1 includes a discussion of a theory of language teaching and learning (including teaching grammatical, sociolinguistic, and communicative competence). Also included are discussions of authentic classroom practice, the nature of the language classroom, the information gap, criteria for selecting activities, the use of the native language, and being eclectic. Part 2 discusses weak and strong versions of communicative language teaching (according to Howatt, Ellis, and Holliday), course syllabi, teaching materials, and the teacher and student roles as communicators. Part 3, focusing on teaching procedure, discusses strong and weak CLT procedures and engages the research of Finocchiaro, Brumfit, Littlewood, and Rivers. Extensive scholarly references appear throughout. (Contains 47 references.) (KFT)

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Communicative Language Teaching: Approach, Design and Procedure

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Introduction

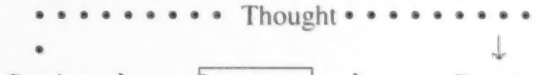
According to Richards and Rodgers (1986: 15-29), any language teaching method can be designed in terms of the issues identified at the levels of approach, design, and procedure. Approach refers to theories about the nature of language and language leaning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. Design is an instructional system coming from the approach. Procedure refers to how the approach and design are realized in classroom behavior. Thus, a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure. According to this model, communicative language teaching (CLT) can be analyzed in the terms of approach, design and procedure.

Part One: CLT Approach

1.1. Theory of Language

CLT is an "approach that aims to (a) make competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 66). CLT views language as a functional system. It holds that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.

"Language is communication, the intimation to another being of what one wants and thinks; language is activity, basically of four kinds (listening, speaking, reading and writing), as well as body language and semiology"(Seaton, 1982:86). According to Broughton, *et al* (1980: 27), spoken language is the major and most complex techniques we have of communicating information. It allows us to produce a sequence of vocal sounds in such a way that another person can reconstruct from those sounds a useful approximation to our original meaning. In the process of oral communication, the sender starts with a thought and puts it into language. The receiver perceives the language and thus understands the thought:



(Broughton, *et al*, 1980:27)

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 71) summarize some of the characteristics of communicative view of language:

1) Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2) The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3) The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative use.

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4) The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

CLT recognizes the teaching of communicative competence as its aim. Chomsky (1965:3) puts forward the term *competence* which he describes as a mere linguistic system or abstract grammatical knowledge. The competence is "the mastery of the abstract system of rules by which a person is able to understand and produce any and all of the well-formed sentences of his language, i.e. his linguistic competence" (Monby, 1983:7). However, many sociolinguists argue that linguistic system alone is not enough for effective communication. To contrast Chomsky's theory of competence, Hymes (1979) coins the term *communicative competence* which contains both knowledge and ability for language use in terms of four factors: "possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and accepted usage":

1) Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2) Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3) Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in reaction to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4) Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails.

Some other sociolinguists agree with Hymes. For example, Cooper remarks that "to communicate effectively, a speaker must know not only how to produce any and all grammatical utterances of a language, but also how to use them appropriately. The speaker must know *what* to say, with *whom*, and *when*, and *where*" (cited in Monby, 1983:17). Thus Hymes' concept of *communicative competence* has the sociolinguistic component which Chomsky's lacks.

Some related analyses of communicative competence are found in other linguists. Canale and Swain (1980) brought together the various viewpoints of communicative competence into a coherent, linguistically oriented and pedagogically useful framework, arguing that communicative competence minimally includes the following four areas of knowledge and skills:

> *Grammatical competence* is understood to reflect knowledge of the language code itself. It includes knowledge of vocabulary and rules of word formation, pronunciation/spelling and sentence formation. Such competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skills required understanding and expressing accurately the literal meaning of utterances.
>
> *Sociolinguistic competence* addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different socilinguistic contexts, depending on contextual factors such as topic, status of participants, and purpose of the interaction. Appropriateness of utterances refers to both appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form.
>
> *Discourse competence* involves mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different

genres such as narrative, argumentative essay, scientific report or business letter. Unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion deals with how utterances are linked structurally to facilitate interpretation of a text. Coherence refers to the relationships among the different meanings in a text where meanings may be literal meanings, communicative functions or social meanings.

Strategic competence refers to the mastery of communication strategies which may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting factors in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other components of communicative competence.

(Canale & Swain, 1980)

More recent analysis is found in Bachman and Palmer (1996) who provide a well-founded and comprehensive definition of communicative competence as follows:

Trait Factors: Competences
Language Competence
Organization Competence
Grammatical (Lexis, Morphology, Syntax)
Textual (Written and Oral Cohesion; Rhetorical Organization)
Pragmatic Competence
Illocutionary (Language Functions)
Sociolinguistic (Register, Dialect, Figurative Language, Cultural Allusions, Naturalness)
Strategic Competence
Assessment
Planning
Execution
Skill Factors
Psychophysiogical Mechanisms
Mode (Receptive/Productive)
Channel (Oral/Aural; Visual)
Method Factors
Language Use situation
Amount of Context
Distribution of Information
Type of Information
Response Mode.

1.2. Theory of Language Teaching and Learning

1.2.1. Teaching Grammatical Competence

It is generally agreed that in the traditional classroom the focus of attention has been on grammatical competence. It has commonly been supposed that once the linguistic competence is acquired, the communicative competence will follow as a more or less automatic consequence. However, Widdowson's evidence (1978:67) suggests that this is not the case: the acquisition of linguistic competence does not seem to guarantee the consequent acquisition of communicative competence in a language. On the

contrary, overemphasis on drills and exercises for the production and reception of sentence tends to inhibit the development of communicative competence. Johnson and Morrow (1981:1) argue that the students coming out of the traditional classrooms are likely to become "structurally competent but communicatively incompetent."

However, this is not to imply that grammar competence is not necessary. "It has never really been seriously suggested that any language learner can become proficient in a language without developing a certain level of grammatical competence" (Tarone & Yule, 1989:18). In practical teaching, it is not being suggested that the teaching of L2 grammaticality be replaced by a counterpart totalitarian communicative conformity. Therefore, "the exclusion of explicit attention to grammar was never a necessary part of CLT" (Thompson, 1996).

It is generally agreed that emphasis should be laid on communicative competence. The most important aspect of a sentence is the function, not its form. Often a sentence that is incorrect in form still conveys the desired intention. "Even where there is grammatical inaccuracy, communication can still take place successfully" (Wilkins, 1974:14). In the process of teaching, therefore, "importance should be attached both to language training at sentence level and to the gradual improvement of students' communicative competence at discourse level" (*College English Syllabus of China*, 1991: 9). Allwright (1979: 168) remarks that "teaching comprehensively for linguistic competence will necessarily leave a large area of communicative competence untouched, whereas teaching equally comprehensively for communicative competence will necessarily cater for all but a small part of linguistic competence."

The proportion of grammar teaching and communicative teaching in a language course needs balanced development. Too much emphasis on one at the expense of the other almost always reaps the following consequences: (1) if overlooking grammar, students may be able to communicate, but they will do so incorrectly; (2) if over-stressing grammar, students will be able to compose sentences correctly, but they will not be able to communicate appropriately and effectively.

How to teach grammar in the process of communication? It is believed that "the target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983:92). Thompson (1996) suggests the teaching of grammar by using some traditional methods which he calls "the retrospective approach" in which "an appropriate amount of class time is devoted to grammar." There are two ways of teaching grammar: "pre-teaching" and "post-task teaching." Littlewood (1981: 86) suggests the pre-teaching method, i.e. students do structural practice before going into communicative activities. The teaching procedure is: structural activities → quasi-communicative activities → functional communicative activities → social interaction activities. Ellis (1999) suggests to use "post-task teaching," i.e. addressing some of the linguistic problems students experienced after they have completed the task.

1. 2. 2. Teaching Sociolinguistic Competence

According to Tarone and Yule (1989), master of sociolinguistic skills in a language entails mastery of speech act conventions, norms of stylistic appropriateness, and the use of language to establish and maintain social relation.

Teaching speech acts includes teaching the functional aspect of language. According to Spolsky (1989:62), "knowledge of a language involves control of one or more integrated functional skills" and "the internal nature of language knowledge is best captured by detailing the many uses to which the language can be put". The function of a same form of words may change with context. For example, "Why don't you close the door?" can perform many different functions such as questioning, imperative or complaint, depending on the situation and the other sentences surrounding it. On the other hand, there are many different ways to express one and the same function. Let's take an Ervin-Tripp's example:

1) Make a statement about his or her need: "I need a match."
2) Use an imperative: "Give me a match."
3) Use an embedded imperative: "Could you have a match?"
4) Use a permission directive: "May I have a match?"
5) Use a question directive: "Do you have a match?"
6) Give a hint: "The matches are all gone, I see."

(Cited in Richards, 1990)

Lack of functional knowledge may cause misunderstanding of the functional meaning. Littlewood (1981: 2) gave an example: a pupil was asked to pick up a towel and hang it on a rail. He got confused with the questions "Would you pick up the towel for me, before someone steps on it?" What do you do with the towel, Jimmie?" "Well, would you like to hang it up?" He was able to understand only the imperative sentence "Pick the tower up!"

To speak appropriately, learners must learn the target culture. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:30) state that "cultural system" is one of the four subsystems of language. This system, together with sound system, grammar system, and vocabulary system should be learned in order to "speak appropriately, fluently and correctly." The system they suggest includes the following:

- Appropriateness of language to the social situation
- Gestures, distances maintained, unarticulated sounds (as in grunts or sighs)
- Values, mores, taboos, rituals, habits, art forms
- Social institutions

The culture governing the appropriateness of a native language is not necessary the same as the culture governing the same use of a foreign language. The culture in different countries may be different. Greeting people in China is different from greeting in USA. Chinese people regard eating as more important to their friends and acquaintances, thus using "Have you eaten?" as a gracious greeting at about mealtime. But this greeting is considered inappropriate in an English speaking country. Therefore, "differences in cultural meanings across languages are a problem in learning a second language" (Lado, 1979:23). Without cultural knowledge students are likely to make "cultural mistakes". This suggests that students should learn the target culture.

According to Seelye (1994), three techniques have been proven popular with teachers in culture workshop across the USA. These techniques are:

1) *Culture Assimilators*, which provide the student with as many as seventy-five or one hundred episodes of target cultural behavior. Each episode describes a "critical incident" of cross-cultural interaction that is usually a common occurrence in which an American and a host national interact, a situation one or both find puzzling or conflictful or that they are likely to misinterpret, and a situation that can be interpreted in a fairly unequivocal manner, given sufficient knowledge about the other's culture.

2) *Culture Capsules*, which are generally prepared outside of class by a student but presented during class time in 5 or 10 minutes at the end of a period.... A culture capsule consists of a paragraph or so of explanation of one minimal difference between American and a target custom, along with several illustrative photos or relevant realia.

3) *Culture Clusters*, which consist of about three illustrated culture capsules that develop related topics, plus one 30-minute classroom simulation that integrates the information contained in the capsules. In the culmisimulation, or skit, practically all of a classroom can be actively involved in dramatizing one or another of the roles. This active integrating skit is accomplished by having the teacher act as narrator to guide the students (through stage directions) to the appropriate actions and speech

(1994: 167-78).

How to plan a culture-teaching lesson? Tarone and Yule (1989: 99-100) suggest four basic components to be included in a typical lesson plan for developing the sociolinguistic competence:

1) *Plan for interaction*. The teacher helps the student select social situations and speech events which are problematic for them, and which they wish to study in more depth. The teacher helps the students both to identify local social events of interest, and to prepare elicitation materials or procedures.

2) *Interact*. Learners might be asked to tap-record native speakers, or tape-record themselves *and* native speakers in various interactions in the target culture - in service encounters, seminars, parties, office interactions, to name only a few.

3) *Transcribe interaction*. Tape-recordings are brought to class and the whole class transcribes them. A useful (though not necessarily sociolinguistic) by-product here is that the transcription process itself is likely to provide very interesting important "learning opportunities" as students may perceive different bits of language differently and have to negotiate among themselves to decided how to transcribe them. The transcription agreed upon is copied and distributed to the class.

4) *Reflect*. The learners as a group look at what is being accomplished by the language in terms of social interaction.

At the stage of reflect, questions to be asked about the data might be:

1) What are the roles of the participants here?
2) Who has the highest status?
3) For whose benefit is each utterance?
4) What, in the lexicon, grammar, or phonology, gives you clues to the answers to these questions?
5) Are the interactants 'converging' or "diverging'? .

According to Tarone and Yule (ibid.), as these questions are asked about a variety of different sorts of recorded interactions (for example, in formal or informal settings; with interactions in a variety of roles such as boss and secretary, professor and student, salesman and customer), the learners' sociolinguistic competence should benefit.

1.2. 3. Teaching Strategy Competence

Strategy competence is used to solve problems encountered in the transmission of information. Ellis (1985:18) remakes that "communication strategies are problem-oriented. They are employed by the learner because he lacks or cannot gain access to the linguistic resources required to express an intended meaning". Since strategy competence involves strategies to be used when communication is difficult, it is of crucial importance for FL learners. Without the competence learners are unable to continue the communication and may even cause breakdowns in communication even if they have a high level of grammatical competence.

According to Ellis (1985:184-5), a typology of communicative strategies is as follows:

A. *Reduction strategies*
   1. Formal reduction strategies
   2. Functional reduction strategies

B. *Achievement strategies*
   1 Compensatory strategies
   a) Non-cooperative strategies
   i) L1/L3-based strategies: code-switching, foreignizing and literal translation
   ii) L2-based strategies: substitution, paraphrase, word coinage and restructuring
   iii) Non-linguistic strategies
   b) Co-operative strategies
   i) Direct appeal
   ii) Indirect appeal
   2 Retrieval strategies
   a) Waiting
   b) Using semantic field
   c) Using other languages

There are some teaching methods that can be used in classrooms to teach the competence. Tarone and Yule (1989) suggest two methods to teach learners how to use communicative strategies. One is to provide the actual instructional activity using a more structured inductive approach. It would be to ask student observers of

communicative exchanges to identify strategies which speakers seem to use when they do not appear to be able to find a precise name for an entity, and to evaluate the degree of success of various strategies. The other is to provide the opportunity for practice in strategy use. Once learners are aware of the strategies used in the process of transmitting information, they are encouraged to use them whenever possible.

Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) also suggest four kinds of strategy-training activities:

1) Fillers (including nonsense dialogues, adding fillers, 'one-word' dialogues)
2) Going off the point (including avoiding giving information, 'Judo')
3) Paraphrase and circumlocution (including explanations, definitions, paraphrasing)
4) Appealing for help (interruptions, 'I don't understand')

Dornyei and Thurrell (ibid.) also remark that "strategy training also facilitates spontaneous improvisation skills and linguistic creativity." The improvisational skill is regarded as a skill of using language creatively without previous preparation or rehearsal to cope with the difficulties in the process of communication.

To train this improvisatory skill, Littlewood (1981) suggests that teachers should transform from the "controlled activities" to the "creativity activities". The nature of transformation is for the teachers to loose their control of the activity and to increase the creativity by providing the related activity from the structural drill to the communicative practice. The less controlled the activity, the more improvisational skills as the following diagram shows:

Control	↑	Performing memorised dialogues
		Contextualised drills
		Cued dialogues
		Role-playing
Creativity	↓	Improvisation

(Littlewood, 1981: 50)

1. 2. 4. Communicative Activities

CLT holds that language should be learned through use and through communication. Based on this notion, teachers usually create real life situations in classes and have students to play roles, simulations, true-to-life interactions, and other communicative activities. In this way students learn to use language appropriately in different types of situations, to use language to perform different kinds of tasks and to use language for social interaction with other people. Thus, language can be learned as it is actually used in real communication.

"An activity is described as a task that has been selected to achieve a particular teaching/learning goal" (Richards & Lockhart, 1994: 161). Communicative activities are thus activities aiming at communicative competence. The activities make contributions to language learning. Littlewood (1981:17-8)summarizes four purposes of the activities:

1) They provide "whole-task practice"
2) They improve motivation

3) They allow natural learning
4) They create a context that supports learning

Communicative activities also make contribution to group work. There are four grouping arrangements in the classroom: whole-class teaching, individual work, pair work and group work. According to Pattison (1987: 13), there are some problems of group work in general. For example, some learners saying nothing while others talk too much, learners speaking their mother tongue or making too many mistakes. However, using communicative activities for group work can reduce these problems. Since many tasks depend on learners sharing their information, everyone has to contribute. Language can be controlled by a language frame or model sentences, so that learners are encouraged to use the L2, and do not 'practice mistakes', without this reducing their speech to mere repetition.

Information Gap

The concept of information gap is one of the most fundamental in the whole area of communicative teaching (Johnson & Morrow, 1981: 6). Classroom activities should be instances of real communication, based on a genuine information gap. "In real life, communication takes place between two people, one of whom knows something that is unknown to the other(s). The purpose of the communication is to bridge this information gap"(ibid., 62). In classrooms, the gap exists when a student in an exchange knows something that the other student does not. If a student knows today is Monday and the other student asks, "What day is today?" then the exchange is not really communicative.

According to Widdowson (1978), one of the most widespread ways of demonstrating the present continuous tense by "situational presentation" is for the teacher to perform an activity like walking to the door or to the window and to say while doing so: " I am walking to the door." However, this is just to teach the meaning of the sentence and the structure of the present continuous tense. It is not considered as communicative. Since everybody sees him/her walking to the door there is no need whatever for him/her to announce that s/he is doing these things. The practice of this kind is considered non-communicative, as no real information is exchanged. It only demonstrates "signification" rather than "value" of language (Widdowson, 1978:11).

The activities without information gap are "mechanical and artificial" (Richards et al 1985:140) and even harmful because they lead students away from the use of the language for communicative purposes. Wolfe argues that "from the point of view of true linguistic communication", such "seemly harmless sentences" as "Yesterday I went to the movies or Last week I went to the game" "border on the nonsensial" (cited in Rivers, 1983:44). Therefore, in classrooms, no matter how simple a sentence is, the teacher must be aware of its possibility for information gap.

Types of Communicative Activities

There are many types of communicative activities. Different linguists design and divide communicative activities differently. For example, Littlewood (1981) has two types of communicative activities: functional communicative activities and social interaction activities.

Paulston and Bruder (1976:60-79) divide four basic types of communicative activities from the point of learning goals:

1) *Social formulas and dialogues*: designed to teach appropriate use of language.
2) *Community-oriented tasks*: sets of exercises which compel the student to interact with native speakers outside the classroom.
3) *Problem-solving activities*: students are given problems and puzzles to solve through discussion and debate.
4) *Role plays*: exercises where the student is assigned a fictitious role from which he has to improvise some kind of behavior toward the other role characters in the exercise.

According to Prabhu (1987: 46-7), there are three types of activities for obtaining information gap:

1) *Information-gap activity*, which involves a transfer of given information from one person to another - or from one form to another, or from one place to another - generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. The activities often involves selection of relevant information as well , and learners may meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

2) *Reasoning-gap activity*, which involves deriving some new information from given information through the process of inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. The activities necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as in information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two.

3) *Opinion-gap activity*, which involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling or attitude in response to a given situation. The activities may involve using factual information and formulating arguments to justify one's opinions, but there is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong, and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions

Criteria for Selecting Activities

In selecting and designing classroom activities to accomplish specific teaching and learning goal, a number of issues have to be resolved. These relate to the following dimensions of activities: purpose, procedures, sequencing, complexity, resources, grouping, strategies, language, time, outcomes, and assessment.

1) How will the purposes of an activity be communicated to the students?
2) What procedures will students use in completing an activity?
3) How will the activity be sequenced in relation to other activities within the same lesson?
4) What kinds of demands does the activity make on learners?
5) What resources will be required?
6) What grouping arrangements will be used?

7) Should a particular learning strategy be used in carrying out an activity?
8) What language or language learning focus should the activities have?
9) How much time should students spend on the activity?
10) What will the outcome of the activity be?
11) How will student performance on the activity be assessed?

(Richards & Lockhard, 1994: 161-71)

1. 2. 5. Authentic Classroom Practice

There are two different point of views towards learning inside and outside classrooms. One view is that all L2 learning is the same as argued in the Krashen model (Krashen, 1981). Another view sees L2 classroom learning is quite different from the 'natural' way of learning language. For example, Pattison (1987:7-8) works out the characteristics of oral practice between teachers and learners in the classroom, and the ways foreign and native speakers communicate with each other outside the classroom and shows the differences in the aspect of content, reason, result, participants and means of communication. This indicates that no classroom can reproduce completely the conditions described in the actual communication situations.

However, many linguists still argue that it is possible for teachers to increase the chances for authentic practice. Pattison (1987: 9) states that the difference between inside and outside classroom learning does not mean that it is impossible to develop the learners' communication skills in the L2 classroom; but it does mean that their classroom practice should have as many characteristics of actual communication as possible. Nunan (1986) also argues that although, in communicative classes, interactions may not be very communicative, strategies can be developed to increase the opportunities for genuine communication. Therefore, it is important for teachers should increase their understanding of their own work and hence better their teaching.

Strategies for Authentic Classroom Practice

There are some factors that can prevent a classroom to be genuinely communicative. Kumaravadivelu (1993) points out two factors. One is "mismatch between teacher intention and learner interpretation". The other is that " teacher educators appear to have been less than successful in providing classroom teachers with strategies minimally required to cope with the challenges of a communicative classroom". Kumaravadivelu (ibid.) then provides five macrostrategies that will help CLT teachers become genuinely communicative:

1) Create learning opportunities in class
2) Utilize learning opportunities created by learners
3) Facilitate negotiated interaction between participants
4) Activate the intuitive heuristics of the learner
5) Contextualize linguistic input.

Nature of the Language Classroom.

A scheme for describing what goes on in language teaching has been developed at OISE in Canada known as COLT – Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (Allen, *et al.*1983). The scheme has two parts: Part A, "Classroom events" categorizes the activities that take place in the classroom; Part B, "Communicative features" looks at what the actual activities consist of. Cook (1991: 97) summarizes the classroom events and communicative features as follows:

Part A: Classroom events

1) *What type of activity occurs?*
2) How do the teachers and students participate in the activity?
3) What content is talked about in the activity?
4) Which skills or combination of skills are being used?
5) What materials are being used?

Part B: Communicative features

1) Which language is used, L1, or L2?
2) Is there an information gap?
3) How long are the utterances?
4) Reaction to code or message
5) Does what one person says take account of what the others say?
6) Who initiates an exchange?
7) How restricted are the linguistic forms?

Use of Native Language

It is generally agreed that use of native language should be limited in communicative classrooms. For example, Pattison (1987: 14-15) remarks that using the native language in communicative practice makes the practice unauthentic. It has several undesirable consequences:

1) the learners receive a subtle message that the FL is not to be used for authentic communication
2) it is artificial to ask learners to speak in the FL if teachers do not do so themselves
3) learners miss the opportunity to receive maximum input in the FL
4) the constant switching between languages disturbs the natural learning process of seeking to understand from context, and of gaining confidence that one can express oneself adequately in the FL without need of the mother tongue

On the other hand, using the target language provides many opportunities for language acquisition to occur. Students are encouraged to internalize the language. "Learning will be effective providing that there is extensive exposure to the target language and plenty of opportunities for the learner to use it" (Brumfit, 1981: 48).

1. 2. 6. Being Eclectic

There are some reasons that CLT can be eclectic. Firstly, CLT theoretical base is "somewhat eclectic"(Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 71). The term "eclectic" means "choosing and accepting freely from various sources" (Seaton, 1982: 54). An eclectic method is a method that accepts the best teaching techniques from other methods or a method that "combines the merits of the past language teaching practices into some form of a viable language teaching method according to the learner's needs and the linguistic environment in which he is taught the target language"(Gautam, 1988: 25). Second, "there is no single text or authority on communicative language teaching, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative" (Ibid. 82). CLT is only an "approach" but not a method. "Within one approach, there can be many methods"(Anthony, 1963:63). Therefore, CLT can be used as an eclectic method

which may contain the elements of other methods or take a compromise position towards a dichotomy.

There are practical benefits for teachers to use CLT as the eclectic method. Teachers can meet the perceived needs of various language learners and increase chances to develop learners' goals. For example, Pattison (1987: 23) states that there are two sets of opposing goals of teaching:

A	B
Accuracy	Fluency
Knowledge about language	Skill in using language
Academic achievement	Social and personal development
Cognitive aims	Affective aims

Pattison (ibid.) states that most teachers seek a middle position, allowing them to include both sets of goals to some degree. Teachers who neglect factors from either side may make for incompleteness. To make the compromise of them (to be Ab or Ba and to avoid being AA or BB), teachers will broaden the rang of techniques, of materials and of activities they use. Thus they have greater chances to promote the optimal development of their various learners and their communication skills.

Apart from Pattison's list of dichotomy, it is possible for teachers to take a compromise attitude towards other dichotomies. For example, Brumfit's list of the "learning and acquisition-type distinctions" is as follows:

1	2
Mechanisms that guide 'automatic' performance	Mechanisms that guide puzzle- or problem-solving performance (Lawler and Selinker, 1971)
Skill-using	Skill-getting (Rivers, 1972)
Acquisition	Learning (Krashen, 1976)
Implicit knowledge	Explicit knowledge (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1977)
Expression rules	Reference rules (Widdowson, 1978b)
Fluency	Accuracy

(Brumfit, 1984: 37)

Part Two: Design

CLT is best considered an approach rather than a method. Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning thoery, at the levels of design and procedure there is much room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 83). These can be shown on the aspect of CLT versions, syllabus, activities and materials.

2.1. Weak and Strong Versions of CLT

Howatt's Definition:

> The "weak" version stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching. Efforts are made to ensure the communicative activities relate to the purpose of the course as specified in the syllabus, hence the importance of proposals to include semantic as well as purely structural features in a syllabus design. The "strong" version of communicative teaching advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as "learning to use" English, the latter entails "using English to learn it" (1984: 279).

Ellis' Definition

Ellis (1999) distinguishes the two versions in terms of their contents and methodology by comparing three approaches to language teaching:

Type	Contents (syllabus)	Methodology
Traditional LT	Type A (list of linguistic items to be taught)	Accuracy (i.e. focus on target-like use of the L2)
Weak CLT	Type A (i.e. list of communicative items to be taught)	Accuracy (i.e. focus on target-like use of the L2)
Strong CLT	Type B (i.e. a series of message-oriented tasks)	Fluency (i.e. focus on message conveyance)

According to Ellis, the "weak" version is predicated on a Type A syllabus that itemizes features of communication to be taught and employs a traditional "accuracy" oriented methodology to teach it. The weak version draws on theories and descriptions of language that emphasize the functional and social side of competence. These afford a clearly defined content for specifying what is to be taught. The accuracy-oriented methodology used to teach this content is typically 'PPP' (present-practice-produce). The weak version differs from traditional approaches to language teaching only with regard to what is taught , not how it is taught. The strong version offers a far more radical alternative to traditional approaches. In the strong version, no attempt is made to specify the teaching content in terms of a set of gradable items. Instead, the content consists of a set of "tasks", which the teacher and students carry out on the classroom.

Holliday's Definition

Holliday (1994: 167-72) defines the two versions in the terms of the focus and lesson input. The weak version focuses on the practice of language use with the basic lesson input as presentation of language models. These models are in the form of "structures" which are presented within a situation provided by a "function", "notion" or "topic". Then they are followed by a communicative activity to practice the language item. The strong version focuses on learning about how language works in discourse as an input to new language production. The lesson input is language data in

the form of text rather than language models. The student carries out tasks which are carefully designed to pose language problems, and which, when solved, will help the student unlock the text.

Holliday (1994:168) summarised the characteristics and the procedures of the two versions of CLT as follows:

Teaching language as communication

↓

Student input: communicative competence

↓	↓
students practising use (weak)	learning about discourse (strong)
↓	↓
maximum opportunities for student initiation	lesson input: language data
↓	↓
lesson input: language models	text as discourse
↓	↓
information gap activities	students communicating with text
↓	↓
pair and group work for communicating	text unlocking activities
↓	↓
outcome: language use	solving language problems
	↓
	outcome: produce new text

According to Holliday, the weak version contains elements which are not adaptable to any social situation and therefore are not culture-sensitive. On the other hand, the strong version can be almost entirely culture-sensitive. Although the two versions differ in the content, methodology and language input, they are common in the aim – teaching language as communication and they both take the communicative competence of the student as a basic input.

Therefore, the weak version is one which attempts to integrate a communicative component into a traditional language program. Thus it has the value of grammatical explanation, error correction and drills. However, learners also need opportunities to engage in genuine communicative interaction. On the other hand, the strong version has less dependency on the traditional teaching components, thus going into the task-based or activity-oriented paradigm. Teachers who have been used to the traditional method may find the weak version easily to understand and use than the strong version. This is perhaps a reason why the strong version is less popular than the weak version.

2. 2. Syllabus

Nunan (1988: 159) defines syllabus as "a specification of what is to be taught in a language program and the order in which it is to be taught. A syllabus may contain all or any of the following: phonology, grammar, functions, notions, topics, themes,

tasks." Yalden (1983: 86-87) suggests that components of a communicative syllabus may include the following:

1) As detailed a consideration as possible of the *purposes* for which the learners wish to acquire the target language;
2) Some idea of the *setting* in which they will want to use the target language (physical aspects need to be considered, as well as social setting);
3) The socially defined *role* the learners will assume in the target language, as well as the roles of their interlocutors;
4) The *communicative events* in which the learners will participate: everyday situations, vocational or professional situations, academic situations, and so on;
5) The *language functions* involved in these events, or what the learner will need to be able to do with or through the language;
6) The *notions* involved, or what the learner will need to able to talk about;
7) The skills involved in the "knitting together" of discourse: *discourse and rhetorical skills;*
8) The *variety* or varieties of the target language that will be needed, and the levels in the spoken and written language which the learners will need to reach;
9) The *grammatical content* that will be needed;
10) The *lexical content* that will be needed.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 17) suggest that functional-notionalism has the "tremendous merit." It can place the students and their communicative purposes at the center of the curriculum. They list the following benefits of adopting a functional-notional orientation:

1) It sets realistic learning tasks.
2) It provides for the teaching of everyday, real-world language use.
3) It leads us to emphasize the need for numerous, varied, receptive activities before rushing learners into premature performance.
4) It recognizes that the speaker must have a real purpose for speaking, and something to talk about.
5) Communication will be intrinsically motivating because it expresses basic communicative functions.
6) It enables teachers to exploit sound psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, linguistic and educational principles.
7) It can develop naturally from existing teaching methodology.
8) It enables a spiral curriculum to be used which reintroduces grammatical, topical and cultural material.
9) It allows for the development of flexible, modular courses.
10) It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language courses.

Yalden (1983:101-118) divides the communicative syllabus into the following types:

1) Structural-functional
2) Structures and functions
3) Variable focus
4) Functional

5) Fully notional
6) Fully communicative

Richards and Rodgers (1986:76) summarize a modified version of Yalden's classification of the communicative syllabus types as follows:

Type	*Reference*
1) Structures plus functions	Wilkins (1976)
2) Functional spiral around a structural core	Brumfit (1980)
3) Structural, functional, instrumental	Allen (1980)
4) Functional	Jupp and Hodlin (1975)
5) Notional	Wilkins (1976)
6) Interactional	Widdownson (1979)
7) Task-based	Prabhu (1983)
8) Learner generated	Candlin (1976), Henner-Stanchina and Riley (1978)

2.3. Teacher's Role as Facilitator

The emphasis on the process of communication in CLT leads to different roles for teachers and learners found in more traditional L2 classrooms. "The teacher is no longer a dominant figure continuously controlling and guiding the students. Rather the teacher takes one step back and lets the students take over their activities, making up their own conversations in pairs and groups, learning language by doing" (Cook, 1991: 140). As such the teacher has many new roles to fulfill.

The teacher is a manager of classroom activities. "In this role, one of his major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication"(Larsen Freeman, 1986:131), and "to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities"(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:78). In such situations, students exchange messages, solve problems and bridge information gaps, thus language is learned as it actually used in real life situation. "At the conclusion of group activities, the teacher leads in the debriefing of the activity, pointing out alternatives, extensions and assisting groups in self-correction discussion" (ibid. 79).

During learning activities, some students may have learning difficulties and need help; others may have problems and confusions to be settled. Then the teacher is a counselor to be "expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 78). The teacher may walk around the classroom to a particular group (pair or individual) to solve problems. Still other students may be not communicating effectively and making errors during conversation, so the teacher should also act as a monitor, taking note of students' linguistic or cultural mistakes, but usually will not intervene to correct a mistake when they are expressing themselves creatively so as not to interrupt their train of thoughts or make them influent. Usually the teacher corrects mistakes in other ways. For example, after the activities, he points out the severe mistakes without referring to student names for their self- correction discussion.

The teacher might be a "co-communicator", acting as an "independent participant within the learning-teaching group"(Breen & Candlin, 1980:99), thus ensuring the

two-way communication in class. There are three ways of the teacher's communication with students: teacher - individual student; teacher – group, and teacher - whole class. However, the teacher should not become main communicators in order not to occupy students' talking time. The teacher is only to demonstrate how to do activities, to help weaker students or to substitute an absent student because another important form of activities is preferable: student-student interaction.

There are other roles that teachers play such as "motivator" and "evaluator". To ensure students to become active communicators, teachers should motivate students. Only strongly motivated students are active. Students will be more motivated if they, for example, have interest and needs of study.

2.4. Students' Role as Communicators

"Students are, above all, communicators. They are actively engaged in negotiating meaning - in trying to make themselves understood - even when their knowledge of the target knowledge is incomplete. They learn to communicate by communicating" (Larsen-Freeman, 1986: 131). During the communication act, "students are not required to produce substantially errorless speech in native terms. Instead they use whatever forms and strategies they can devise to solve their communication problem, ending up with sentences that are entirely appropriate to their task but are often highly deviant from a native perspective"(Cook, 1991: 140).

Breen and Candlin (1980:110) describe learner roles in this way:

> The role of learner as negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way.

"Since the teacher's role is less dominant than in a teacher-centered method, students are seen as more responsible managers of their own learning"(Larsen-Freeman 1986:131). This means that if students want to be more independent they must cultivate correct "attitudes to learning" and "approaches to learning" (Richards, 1990: 13). In other words, students should be helped to know not only why to learn but also how to learn. In the Chinese context, for example, this involves linking up students' studies with the realization of the four modernization's, helping students see present of future needs that English can satisfy, and helping them realize that English is a golden key to the store house of knowledge in the world. On the other hand, the teacher should help students to acquire scientific and effective method of study so that students may gradually learn to work and achieve success on their own.

2.5. Teaching Materials

"Practitioners of CLT view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of promoting communicative language use"(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:79). The role of instructional materials might be specified in the following terms:

1) Materials will focus on the communicative abilities of interpretation, explanation, and negotiation.

2) Materials will focus on understandable, relevant, and interesting exchanges of information, rather than on the presentation of grammatical form.
3) Materials will involve different kinds of texts and different media, which the learners can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks.

(Richards & Rodgers, 1986:25)

The materials should be authentic. Cook (1991:94) states three justifications for the use of authentic text in communicative teaching:

1) *Motivation and interest*. Students will be better motivated by texts that have served a real communicative purpose.
2) *Acquisition-promoting content*. Authentic texts provide a rich source of natural language for the learner to acquire language form.
3) *Filling-in gaps*. Designers of course books and syllabuses may miss some of the aspects of language used in real-life situations. This lack can be filled most easily by giving students the appropriate real-life language.

The authentic materials are pieces of language, either spoken or written, which were originally messages produced for communication in a non-teaching situation. They are genuine pieces of communication designed for native speakers, so not structurally graded. Nor are they organized in order to demonstrate a language teaching point. On the contrary, they are linguistically rich and give students opportunities to extend their experience of English. Moreover, they are potentially more interesting than texts which have been especially contrived for language teaching purposes.

Because the authentic materials are designed for native speakers, they are may be too difficult to be materials to L2 students with lower proficiency. Larsen-Freeman (1986: 136) has two solutions to this problem. One is to use simpler authentic material (e.g. the use of a weather forecast when working on predictions), or at least materials that are realistic. The other is to use realia that do not contain a lot of language, but about which a lot of discussion could be generated. Menus and timetables are two examples.

Many materials have been compiled to support CLT. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986:80), CLT materials come from three sources. One way of choosing materials is based on the "authentic" realia which includes language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can be built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts." Another source is "text-based materials". There are numerous textbooks designed to direct and support CLT. Still another is the "task-based materials". These typically are in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets.

Part Three: CLT Teaching Procedure

Because CLT is regarded as an eclectic method and teachers want to meet different needs of learners, there are a variety of classroom procedures used in a lesson. The procedures can be analyzed in two broad categories: "strong" and "weak" versions.

3.1. Procedures of Strong Versions of CLT

Practitioners of strong version of CLT believe that the teacher should provide communicative practice from the start of the instruction without first gaining control over individual skills (pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary). This communicative procedure has been called the "deepend strategy" since at the first stage students are asked to do something they are not yet been taught to do and hence are being "thrown in the deepend"(Johnson,1983:53). Thus it is a reversal of the traditional procedures in which presentation of knowledge is important and is done at the first stage of teaching:

Traditional Procedure:

Stage I		*Stage II*		*Stage III*
Present	→	Drill	→	Practice in context

Communicative Procedure:

Stage I		*Stage II*		*Stage III*
Communicate as far as possible with all available resources	→	Present language items shown to be necessary to achieve effective communication	→	Drill if necessary

(Brumfit, 1980:121)

3.2. Procedures of Weak Version of CLT

Practitioners of weak version of CLT believe that students are not able to use new language for effective communication before they have gained enough individual skills of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. So it is not advisable to put learners in the "deepend" at the beginning of a lesson. One component of this procedure is a stage in which grammar knowledge is presented.

For developing oral communication skills, Pattison (1987) designs the activities as the following types:

1) Questions and answers
2) Dialogues and role-plays
3) Matching activities
4) Communicative strategies
5) Pictures and picture stories
6) Puzzles and problems
7) Discussions and designs

Pattsion (1987: 26-7) suggests three stages to use the above activities:

1) The activity is introduced or demonstrated, and tried out by the learners. This enables you to ensure that they understand or can use the minimum language necessary to function successfully (including adequate pronunciation and intonation). This stage can also be used as an independent activity in which all communication stems from or is directed at the teacher.
2) Learners continue to practice with given language or with your help and guidance, but most speech is now between the learners themselves. Correction

of errors, if and when you feel it is necessary, can take place most conveniently in stages 1 and 2.

3) This gives independent practice between learners, without reliance on language frames, model phrases or constant teacher help. When learners are familiar with the activity, stage 3 can sometimes be used as a filler – to occupy pairs or groups who finish work before others, or who need an alternative activity.

In the whole process, the emphasis is put on the different aspect, 'from receptive, teacher-centered or controlled practice to productive, learner-centered or independent practice". In the first stage, learners are asked to understand and to use language necessary to function successfully. In the second stage, learners continue to practice with given language under the teacher's help and guidance. They are also judged by the teacher whether or not they are ready to enter the final stage. In the final stage, learners practice independently between themselves (pairs or groups) without reliance or constant teacher help. However, not all learners need move to Stage Three simultaneously. Some learners may continue to need teacher help or to work with given language, while others are ready to work more independently. It is clear that in any stage of this procedure there is no component of teaching grammar.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit's Model

CLT procedures are considered as "evolutionary rather than revolutionary" by Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983:107-8). This means the teaching procedure should retain some stages of the traditional method such as the "presentation" as the first stage for teaching new language. The teacher needs "to offer both controlled and guided activities leading to fluency, accuracy, and habit formation (e.g. the ability to move lips and tongue quickly in forming a sound or to use the present perfect instead of the simple past with many times) and those more creative tasks in which students can make and are encouraged to make free choices" (Ibid., 100). They provide the procedures for teaching "making a suggestion" as an example:

1) Presentation of a brief dialog or several mini-dialogs, proceeded by a motivation (relating the dialog situations to the learners' probable community experiences) and a discussion of the function and situation – people, roles, setting, topic, and the informality or formality of the language which the function and situation demand.
2) Oral practice of each utterance of the dialog segment to be presented that day (entire class repetition, half-class, groups, individuals) generally proceeded by your model. If mini-dialogs are used, engage in similar practice.
3) Questions and answers based on the dialog topic(s) and situation itself.
4) Questions and answers related to the students' personal experiences but centered around the dialogue theme.
5) Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialog or one of the structures which exemplify the function. You will wish to give several additional examples of the communicative use of the expression or structure with familiar vocabulary in unambiguous utterances or mini-dialogs to clarify the meaning of the expression or structure...
6) Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure. This should include at least four points: its oral and written forms (the elements of which it is composed, e.g. "How about + verb +

ing?); its position in the utterance; its formality or informality in the utterance; and in the case of a structure, its grammatical function and meaning;...

7) Oral recognition, interpretative activities (two to five depending on the learning level, the language knowledge of the students, and related factors).
8) Oral production activities – proceeding from guided to freer communication activities.
9) Copying of the dialogs or mini-dialogs or modules if they are not in the class text.
10) Sampling of the written homework assignment, if given.
11) Evaluation of learning (oral only), e.g. "How would you ask your friend to _____? And how would you ask me to_____?"

(1983: 107-8)

Littlewood's Model

Littlewood (1981: 85-89) claims the "pre-teaching of structure", i.e. students need structural practice before going into communicative activities:

Pre-communicative activities { Structural activities / Quasi-communicative activities

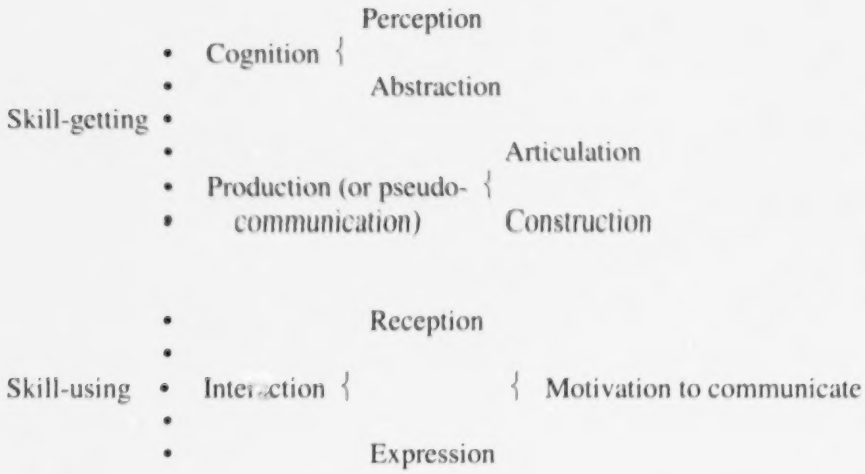
Communicative activities { Functional communicative activities / Social interaction activities

The communicative procedure consists of two stages of activities: the pre-communicative stage and the communicative stage. The pre-communicative stage is further divided into two periods: the structural period and the quasi-communicative period. During the structural period, the teacher provides activities that will help students "to produce a certain language form in acceptable activities". During the quasi-communicative period, the teacher "isolates specific elements of knowledge or skill which compose communicative ability, and provides the learners with opportunities to practice them separately". By the time the students finish the first stage of activities, they have developed "partial skills of communication". Now they are ready for the second stage of activities.

The communicative stage is also further divided into two periods: the functional communicative period and the social interaction period. During the functional communicative period, "the production of linguistic forms becomes subordinate... to the communication of meaning", and the teacher provides such activities as will increase the students' "skill in starting from an intended meaning". During the social interaction period, the teacher requires the students "to go beyond what is necessary for simply 'getting meaning across', in order to develop greater social acceptability in the language", and this stage "may also involve producing speech which is socially appropriate to specific situations and relations."

Rivers's Model

Rivers (1983: 42-44) proposes the "essential processes in learning to communicative". This procedure is characteristic of "pre-teaching of knowledge." The process is as follows:



Rivers states that "ability to communicate, to interact verbally, presumes some knowledge" and "linguistic knowledge must be acquired." Therefore, in the stage of cognition, learners gain some knowledge both in the *perception* of units, categories, and functions, and in the internalizing of the rules relating these categories and functions (which is a process of *abstraction*). In the stage of production, learners learn to articulate the sounds of the language acceptably and construct comprehensible L2 sequences by rapid association of learned elements. This practice is pseudo-communication which is externally directed, not self-originating and which is a dependent, not an independent, activity. In the stage of interaction, there should be automatic transfer to performance in *interaction* both in the reception and expression of message. Learners are encouraged for autonomous interaction while the teacher leads the group, draws the learners out and directs the interchange.

3.3. Procedures Vary with Local Needs

Sano, *et al* (1984) argues that communicative language teaching should meet the local needs and the methodology of FL teaching should vary significantly according to the environments in which teachers find themselves working. Based on the teaching aim at the secondary schools in Japan – "linguistic competence plus an ability to use the language appropriately", teachers from the communicative Teaching Society chose a method of teaching English which would be effective and appropriate in Japan and which was different from that of CLT developing in Europe at about the same time. The teaching procedure has its Japanese characteristics:

1) *Warm-up.* This offers learners interesting language activities to relax them and to let them use English creatively. Establishing a non-threatening environment is given prime importance here.

2) *Introduction of new grammatical items.* This is usually carried out through conversion between the teacher and learners concerning objects or incidents familiar to them.... After eliciting appropriate responses for learners, the teacher explains the meaning of the items briefly in Japanese.

3) *Practice.* This is generally carried out either by stimulating learners' intellectual curiosity or by appealing to their emotional value judgments. Self-

expression activities, though sometimes quite limited in scope, are incorporated even at the earliest stage. Care is also taken to make learning and production "deep" in Stevick's sense.

4) *Reading the text.* This includes listening to the tape of a "gist' explanation of the content, as well reading the text both silently and aloud.

5) *Communicative practice.* This requires not only mastery of the target item, but also creative use of the knowledge of language so far acquired. It can be totally oral, but quite often involves some writing.

In this procedure emphasis is put on two needs: (1) the need to encompass the basic flow of classwork. The teachers had only three hours per week in Japanese junior high schools. In order to prepare students for study at home, most of the time is devoted to the teach-student interaction while a little time is put on communicative activities; (2) the need of learning grammar. "Grammar should be considered important so far as it enables learners to use language creatively and this is held to be more important than appropriateness of use language." Much attention adhered to the grammar and textbooks because students had to take the competitive entrance examination which requires accurate knowledge of grammar, and the great linguistic differences between English and Japanese.

According to Candlin (1981), in Germany, the Exercise Typology for Developing Communicative Competence by Ulrich Grewer, Terry Moston and Malcolm Sexton has been designed which is a systematic collection of exercise-types for communicative oriented English teaching.

1) *Organizing Information.* Exercises in this phase focus on ways of encouraging learners to check their basic understanding of a variety of texts in a controlled way, using a range of matching and multiple choice exercises linked to various written, pictorial and heard stimuli.

2) *Implanting Skills.* Here exercises introduce controlled simulations, designed to exploit the variety of social meanings contained with particular grammatical structures in different situations. Once again the exercises make use of a range of stimuli.

3) *Developing Skills.* Exercises in this phase are intended to enable the learner to make productive use of his language, but still within controlled situations. Gradually, however, the exercises encourage manage transfer to those situations and areas of interest which are personal to the hearer.

4) *Using Skills.* In this open-ended phase, exercises concentrate on language charts and discourse plans to stimulate the production of extended spoken and written communication.

(Candlin, 1981:5)

Conclusion

CLT is an innovation in language teaching. It emerged as a new teaching method in Britain in the 1970s and became popular since than. It views language as a vehicle for communication. It recognizes as its aim the teaching of communicative competence, which includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Communicative activities play an important role in developing communicative competence and are an important part in communicative classrooms. In communicative classrooms, the teacher's role is facilitator and co-communicator while students become communicators. The communicative teaching procedure has no fixed format and can vary with local needs. Teachers can use CLT flexibly according to their teaching context. With the knowledge of CLT and a better understanding of CLT principles, teachers are likely to teach communicatively in the classrooms.

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